CONTRSTIVE ANALYSIS & ERRORS ANALYSIS

FOR
LEVEL IV STUDENTS
ENGLISH DEPT.

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UNIT 1

Contrastive Analysis

This unit will focus on the following topics

- ❖ **COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS & CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**
- ❖ **TYPES OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**
- ❖ **THE CONCEPT OF TRANSFER**
- ❖ **VERSIONS OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS HYPOTHESIS**
- ❖ **TECHNIQUES AND APPOACHES TO CONT. ANALYSIS**
- ❖ **STEPS OR PROCEDURES FOR COBDUCTING CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**
- ❖ **THE CONCEPT OF TRANSFER**
- ❖ **DEGREES OF DIFFICULTY**
- ❖ **SOME PEDAGOGICAL APPICATIONS FOR CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**

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- ➢ **COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS & CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**

Comparing languages has always interested linguists, and so comparative studies in linguistics have a long history. Linguists have compared various stages in the development of a single language, for example comparing Old Arabic with Modern Arabic, to find out about the changes in the language. Sometimes different but related languages have been compared at a certain stages of their development in order to construct a proto-language. These studies have been known as **Comparative Historical Linguistics.**

Linguists have also been comparing languages as they are used today in order to classify them into certain groups on the basis of the occurrence of some features. Some linguists study the structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history, in order to establish a satisfactory classification, or typology of languages or special structures in languages. This type of study has been termed **Comparative Typological Linguistics.**

In addition to these two types of comparative studies, there is another type in which two or more languages can be compared to determine the differences and similarities between them. This kind of study is referred to as **Contrastive Analysis or Contrastive Study**. Like typological study, Contrastive Analysis (CA) is interested in comparing languages

synchronically, though it has different aims. Contrastive analysis is concerned with both similarities and differences between languages at a particular level, i.e. phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic for a particular purpose, especially teaching and translation.

➢ TYPES OF CONTRANSTIVE ANALYSIS

Many linguists draw a distinction between *theoretical* and *applied* contrastive analysis. It is claimed that **theoretical CA** gives an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages, provides an adequate model for their comparison, and determines how and which elements of the languages are comparable, while **applied CA** directs the comparison of the languages toward some specific non-linguistic purpose, such as translation, foreign languages teaching, or explanation of interlingual errors. Here the findings of theoretical contrastive studies provide a framework for the comparison of languages for a specific purpose.

➢ VERSIONS OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS HYPOTHESIS

There are three versions of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) in the literature since it has always been a field of heated controversy and the advocates of this discipline have not shared the same views regarding its main tenets. The different views are discussed under the strong version, the weak version, and the moderate version.

The Strong Version

The advocates of the principle of transfer in foreign language learning have hypothesized that learning of similar items (sounds, words, structures, and cultural items) in the foreign language is easy and that of different items is difficult, and the degree of difficulty depends upon the degree of differences. The underlying assumptions of the strong version of CAH were outlined by Lee as follows:

1. The main cause, or even the sole cause, of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the Learner's Native Language (NL).
2. The difficulties are chiefly, or wholly, due to the differences between the two languages.
3. The greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be.
4. The results of a comparison between the two languages are needed to predict the difficulties and errors which will occur in learning the foreign language.

5. What there is to teach can best be found by comparing the two languages and then putting aside what is common to them, so that what students have to learn equals the sum of the differences established by the CA.

One shortcoming of this hypothesis is that it can only describe *interlingual* errors, that is, errors in the foreign language which are caused by interference from the native language. Experiments, however, have shown that only one-third of the errors committed by learners are of this type. Two third of the learners' errors are caused by other sources.

The Weak Version
A number of psychologists disagree with the application of the principle of transfer in foreign language learning to predict errors that might occur. They suggest that in the process of foreign language learning, if the learner gets into trouble, he tries to resort to his native language for help. For example, in the case of an Arab learner of English, if the learner is not able to produce certain sounds of English like the /p/ or /v/ he/she substitutes them with the closest sounds from Arabic language such as /b/ and /f/. This is not because of proactive inhibition; rather the learner has not yet learned how to produce these English sounds, and so he refers to his previous linguistic knowledge, Arabic sound system, for help. In other words, the native language does not interfere, rather it helps, and the linguist should only use the best knowledge available to him in order to account for the observed difficulties in second language learning. He starts with the evidence provided by linguistic interference and uses such evidence to explain the similarities and difference between the two systems. Therefore, in contrast with the predictive claim of the strong version, the weak version is a model with diagnostic and explanatory means. However, as it is clear the weak version – though more realistic and practicable than the 'strong' version – is still confined to errors caused by language transfer

The Moderate Version
The advocates of this theory believe that instead of transfer, the principle of *stimulus generalization* is at work in the learning of a native or foreign language.

The categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning; therefore, wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result. Conversely, where patterns are functionally or perceptually equivalent in a system or systems, correct generalization may occur.

The implication is that, for example, an Arab learner of English will make fewer errors on the English items that are different from Arabic than on those which are similar. In fact, since an Arab, while learning English, expects to learn a different system, and thus pays more attention to different items, which is a motivating factor in learning, the different items must be significantly easy to internalize; and this is what experiments have shown to be true: gross differences – because of their saliency – are often more easily perceived and stored in memory, while minimal differences can be overlooked because of overgeneralization.

One great advantage of this learning theory is that it can describe both *interlingual* and *interalingual* errors, that is, errors, the sources of which are either in the native language or target language.

➢ **TECHNIQUES AND APPOACHES TO CONTTRSTIVE ANALYSIS**
Comparison of any given pair depends on description and the description is provided through applying linguistic theories and methods. Therefore, there is an inevitable relation between CA and linguistic theories. James (1989) defines this framework as consisting of three phases:
1. CA adopts linguistic tactic of dividing up the concept of a language into 3 smaller and more manageable areas of phonology, grammar and lexis.
2. CA uses descriptive categories of linguistic unit, structure, class and system.
3. CA uses the linguistic description under the same model of language.

There are different linguistic theories which may be used for the purpose of comparison. Traditional, structural and generative transformational models are discussed briefly.

a) **Traditional approach** describes languages based on two types of analysis: one dealing with the identification of parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and function words like prepositions and conjunctions), and the other dealing with identification of functions of various parts of speech (subject, predicate, kinds of complements and modifiers). This traditional model is believed to work along the *horizontal* dimensions necessarily involved in comparing an element or a class of elements in L1 with an *equivalent* element in L2 and/or vice versa.

b) **Structural approach**, expounded by Bloomfield (1933) and elaborated by Harris (1963), focusing on five types of structural signals for identifying parts of speech: function words, word order, inflection, derivational contrast, and suprasegmentals.

c) **Transformational generative grammar approach**, by which the contrastive analysis has been profoundly influenced from three aspects: (1) the universal base hypothesis, (2) the deep and surface structure distinction, and (3) the rigorous and explicit description of linguistic phenomena1.

➢ **STEPS OR PROCEDURES FOR COBDUCTING CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**

Five different steps or **procedures** have been mentioned in the literature for comparing and contrasting two languages, or two subsystems for that matter. These are explained below.

i.   Selection
It must be realized that a comprehensive comparison of two languages for pedagogical purposes is neither feasible nor necessary. Therefore, the analyst should select certain features of the target language that may potentially cause difficulty for the learners and then compare and contrast those features with parallel features in the learners'native language. Selection can be based on the analyst's teaching experience and bilingual intuition, if he shares the same native language with the learners. It can also be based on a prior analysis of errors committed by the learners.

ii.   Description
After the selection of certain linguistic items, structures or rules, the linguist or language teacher, should explicitly describe the two languages in question. Scientific description has been the core of contrastive analysis and the proponents of this theory have always put emphasis on parallel description of the two languages. By *parallel description* it is implied that the two languages should be described through the same linguistic model or framework. For example, if the analyst used Generative-Transformational Grammar for describing certain aspects of the grammar of L1 he should use the same model for the description of L2. This principle works in the majority of cases; however, some languages may require the use of alternative models for their description.

iii.   Comparison
When the description of subsystems of the two languages is complete, the job of the analyst is to compare and contrast the two systems by juxtaposing features of the two languages in order to find similarities and differences between them. At this stage, the analyst has to decide what to

compare with what. Linguistic features of the two languages are compared on three levels: form, meaning, and distribution of forms.

iv. Prediction

Having described and compared certain features across languages, the analyst can make predictions about difficulties learners may face in acquiring the second language. The analyst should judge whether similarities and differences found through the comparison of the two languages are problematic for the learners or not. Predictions can be arrived at through the formulation of a hierarchy of difficulty, as discussed below.

v. Verification

The final step in contrastive analysis is verification. In this stage, the analyst needs to find out whether the predictions made about errors and difficulties actually materialize or not. In other words, we need to ask whether second language learners in reality commit the type of errors predicted on the basis of the contrastive analysis of the two languages or sub-systems of those languages.

➢ THE CONCEPT OF LANGUAGE TRANSFER

A major task of applied contrastive studies is the identification of probable areas of difficulty in another language where, for example, a given category is not represented in the surface structure of the foreign/second language. As a result, in the process of learning this foreign/second language some *interference* many occur.

Experiments in psycholinguistics indicate that the second language to be learned is always seen through the filter of first language rule system. While learning a second language, the rules of the first language (L1) are matched with those of the second language (L2): they are expanded, additional rules are learned, and some of the rules of the first language are discovered to be invalid in the second language. In this process, the differences between the rule system of the source and the target language cause interferences, which have to be given special consideration in second language teaching.

The concept of **transfer** is of two kinds, depending on the similarities and differences between the structures of the learner's native language and target/foreign language. When students come into contact with a foreign language, they will find some features of it quite easy because they are similar to their L1, so this old habit (i.e. the element in the native language) will facilitate the formation of a new habit (i.e. a new element in the target language). Here we say **positive**
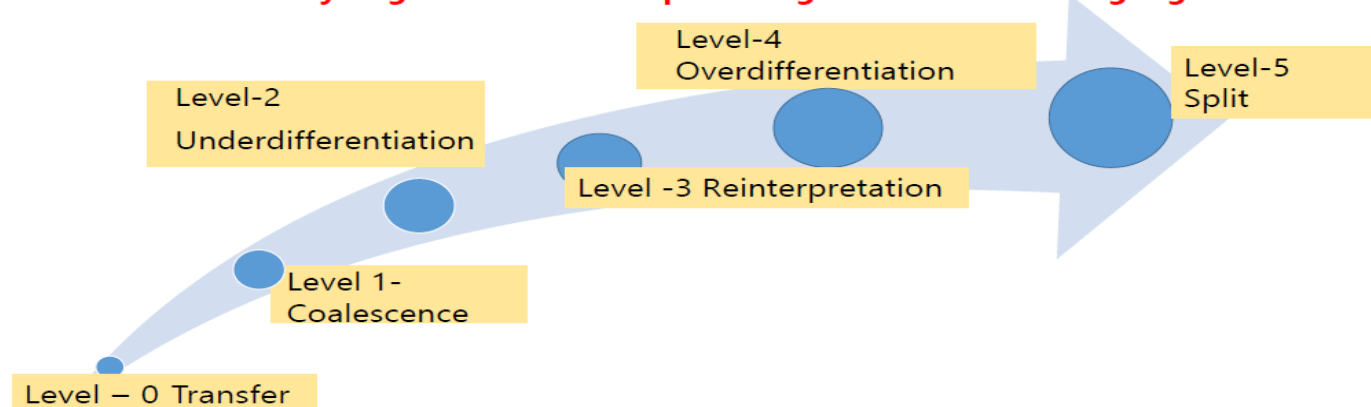
transfer takes place. However, some elements in the L2 are different from those in the L1, so learning them would be difficult for students because here the old habit impedes the formation of a new habit. Here **negative transfer** is believed to occur and learning becomes difficult; thus, errors may occur. How these errors are treated in CAH depends on the view taken by its proponents.

Now that a distinction has been drawn between positive and negative transfer, it is time to review the degrees of difficulty that may arise in learning a foreign language.

7. DEGREES OF DIFFICULTY

Prator (1967) captured the essence of the grammatical hierarchy in six categories of difficulty. Prator's hierarchy is applicable to both grammatical and phonological features of language. The six categories devised upon the notion of transfer, in the ascending order of difficulty, are presented by Brown uder the title of degrees of difficulty.

• **Prator's hierarchy in grammatical and phonological features of language**

Level-2 Underdifferentiation

Level 1- Coalescence

Level – 0 Transfer

Level -3 Reinterpretation

Level-4 Overdifferentiation

Level-5 Split

Level 0: Transfer

No difference or contrast is present between the two languages. The learner can simply transfer a sound, structure, or lexical item from the native language to the target language. Examples can be found in certain phonemes and their distribution in English and Arabic (/s/, /z/, /m/, /n/), structures (say, general word order), or words (computer, credit card).

Level 1: Coalescence

Two or more items in the native language converge into one item in the target language. The learner has to overlook the distinction he learned in his native language. Examples of coalescence in the case of Arab learners of English are:

i)   Arabic has five forms for 2nd person, which are coalesced in

English as one item 'you' as follows:

anta	(Sg, M)
anti	(Sg, F)
antumā	(Dl, C)
antum	(Pl, M)
antunna	(Pl, F)

you

ii)   Arabic has medial and distal demonstratives and locative adverbs,

which become one distal demonstrative and locative adverb as under:

ðāka
⎫
⎬ That
ðalika
⎭

hunāka
⎫
⎬ there
hunālika
⎭

Level 2: Underdifferentiation

An item in the native language is absent in the target language. The learner must avoid that item. Arabic learners of English must 'forget' such items as Arabic distinction between masculine and feminine forms; perfect object (المفعول المطلق: أحبه حباً). A number of phonemes that are present in Arabic are absent in English; several consonants like /q/ق, /ḡ/ غ, /ṭ/ ط.

Level 3: Reinterpretation

An item that exists in the native language is given a new shape or distribution. The Arabic speaker who learns English must reshape Arabic dental consonants /t/ and /d/ to suit English alveolar counterparts. Or, when in Arabic, we use a definite article (الشمس, الحب), in English the definite article is restricted (love, the sun). Drak and clear /l/.

Level 4: Overdifferentiation

A new item entirely, bearing little if any similarity to the native language item, must be learned. For example, in learning English, the native Arabic speaker must learn to include the definite article before singular nouns (a fair lady; سيدة جميلة) or, most commonly, to learn perfect and continuous tenses. English consonants /dʒ/, /ŋ/ and /tʃ/ are new to the Arabic speaker.
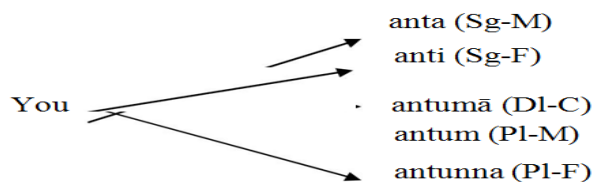
Level 5: Split

This is the counterpart of level 1. That is, an item in the native language diverges into two or more items in the target language. In this case he Arab learner of English must learn the distinction between these items in the two lanfuages.

a)   The second person in English splits into five in Arabic:

```
                                    anta (Sg-M)
                                    anti (Sg-F)
        You                    ·    antumā (Dl-C)
                                    antum (Pl-M)
                                    antunna (Pl-F)
```

b)   *'That'* can be rendered in Arabic as ðāka, ðālika, tāka, tilka according to the circumstance under which it occurs, i.e. it splits into Arabic as shown below:

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                    ðāka
        That        ðālika
                    tika/tāka
                    tilka
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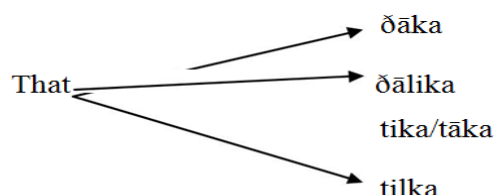
➢ **SOME PEDAGOGICAL APPICATIONS FOR CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**

1. **In the field of English Language Teaching and Learning**

   a) English Language Teaching:

   Despite CA's limitation in the prediction of L2 learners' errors, it provides insights to at least some of the major mistakes that are frequently made by L2 learners irrespective of their L1. Hence, more tailor-made language design can be adopted; examples include awareness raising teaching method and hierarchical learning teaching curriculum. Contrastive analysis can help teachers to :
   - design teaching and learning materials (methodology)
   - engage learner in activities to be a good user of target language.
   - pay attention to the structure of the texts beyond sentence level
   - pay attention to conversation in its regular pattern in different situation
   - pay attention to complex areas like intonation
   - contrastive analysis does not suggest a method or teaching technique but help methodologists to pay attention to the whats and hows of teaching.

   b) In English <u>language learning</u>:

   Awareness raising is the major contribution of CA in second language learning. This includes CA's abilities to explain observed errors and to outline the differences between two languages; upon language learners' realization of these aspects, they can work to adopt a viable way to learn instead of rote learning, and correct fossilized

language errors.

2. In Curriculum Development

Contrastive Analysis also helps textbook designers to avoid using the material with a high degree of difficulty and high degree of occurrence in a same text (which makes the text more difficult) The writer should balance among the most difficult items and the least difficult items throughout the text.

1. In Translation:

CA provides better understanding of linguistic difference between two languages and therefore may be applied to the field of translation. Primarily, CA certainly lays a foundation for translation as it is an integral element for translators and interpreters to have a thorough understanding of not only the two languages, but the differences between them. Also, it might balance the <u>word-for-word</u> vs. <u>sense-for sense</u> debate by developing strategies to overcome the linguistic hindrance. Moreover, it may avoid awkward translations.

2. <u>**In Error Analysis:**</u>

Contrastive analysis helps you to classify the errors, predict and finally avoid them.(error analysis)

Unite 2

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND ARABIC

This unit of the course will be concerned with the following topics:

- ❖ Brief historical background of English language and Arabic language
- ❖ Phonological, Morphological, Syntactic, and Orthographic similarities and differences between *English* and *Arabic* and the impact of that on learning English by speakers of Arabic language
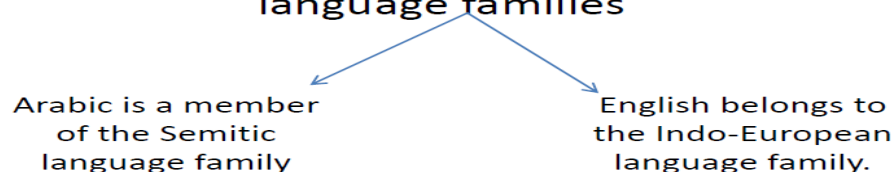
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- ❖ Historical Background of English and Arabic

Arabic is the official language in many countries including Egypt, Iraq, Libya, Saudi Arabia and Morocco. Arabic is also the language of the Quraan, so Muslims of all nationalities re familiar with it. There are many Arabic dialects, but there is one version that is taught in schools and used by the media across the Arab world.

As indicated in the diagram below, English and Arabic belong to different language families. English belongs to the Indo-European language family, whereas Arabic belongs to Semitic language family. Therefore we can find a great deal of differences in the structures of these two languages at different levels i.e (Syntactically, phonologically, Semantically, etc). Hence, there is a large potential for errors of interference when Arab learners produce written or spoken English.

English and Arabic belong to two different language families

Arabic is a member of the Semitic language family

English belongs to the Indo-European language family.

Some Phonological, Morphological, Syntactic, and Orthographic similarities and differences between *English* and *Arabic*

Phonology

The Arabic and English phonological systems vary extensively, not only in the range of sounds used, but also in the relative importance of vowels and consonants in expressing meaning. While English has 22 vowels and diphthongs to 24 consonants, Arabic has only eight vowels and diphthongs to 32 consonants

Consonant Clusters

English has far more consonant clusters than Arabic. Some initial two-segment clusters which Arabic does not have corresponding equivalents to, include: pr, pl, gr, thr, thw, sp. The three-segment initial consonant clusters are entirely absent in Arabic, e.g., clusters such as spr, skr, str, spl. Faced with the challenge of such consonant clusters, Arabic speakers will often insert short vowels in order to "assist" pronunciation in the following manner

'perice' or 'pirice' for price
'ispring' or 'sipring' for spring

The range of consonant clusters appearing at the end of words is also much smaller in Arabic. In dramatic contrast to English, which has 78 three-segment clusters and fourteen four-segment clusters occurring at the end of words, Arabic has none. Again, faced with such terminal clusters, Arabic speakers tend to insert short vowels to assist pronunciation

'arrangid' for arranged
'monthiz' for months
'nexist' for next

Teachers will often encounter examples of such pronunciations, which also can carry over into the spelling of such English words by students whose mother tongue is Arabic

Influence of English Spelling on Pronunciation

While there are no similarities between the Arabic and English writing systems, Arabic spelling within its own system is simple and virtually phonetic. Letters stand directly for their sounds. Arabic speakers attempt, therefore, to pronounce English words using the same phonetic methodology. Add to this the salience of consonants in Arabic and you get severe pronunciation problems caused by the influence of the written form:

'istobbid' for stopped (the 'p' sound does (not exist in Arabic
'forigen' for foreign

<u>Rhythm and Stress</u>

Arabic speakers can have problems grasping the unpredictable nature of English word stress since Arabic is a stress-timed language. In stark contrast with English, word stress in Arabic is predictable and regular. The idea that stress can alter meaning, as in con'vict (verb) and 'convict (noun) is utterly foreign. Arabic words that are spelled identically often appear, and mean completely different things, but will have dissimilar short vowels which count as sounds and change the meaning altogether.

Phrase and sentence rhythms are similar in both Arabic and English languages, and should cause few problems. Primary stresses occur more frequently in Arabic while unstressed syllables are pronounced more clearly. As with English, the unstressed syllable has neutral vowels, but such vowels are not 'swallowed' as in English. Arabs reading English will often avoid contracted forms and elisions, and read with a rather heavy staccato rhythm

<u>Intonation</u>

Intonation patterns in Arabic are similar to English in contour and meaning. However, Arabic speakers use rising tones rather than structural markers to denote questions, suggestions and offers far more frequently than English-speakers, and this practice is often carried over into the spoken English of Arabic speakers.

When reading aloud however, as opposed to talking, the Arabic speaker tends to intone or chant, reducing intonation to a low fall at the ends of phrases and sentences. Speech making, news reading and religious recitation are all quite different in rhythm and intonation from normal speech. Consequently, Arabic speakers called on to read aloud in front of a group may produce a very unnatural recitation because they see the process of formal reading as distinct from everyday speech

<u>Grammar</u>

The grammatical structure of Arabic, a Semitic language, is very different from that of Indo-European languages such as English. These great differences must be borne in mind when Arabic speakers are mixed with European students.

The basis of the Arabic language is the three-consonant root. A notion such as writing, cooking, or eating is represented by three consonants in a particular order. All verb forms, nouns, adjectives, participles, etc. are then formed by putting these three-root consonants into fixed vowel patterns, modified sometimes by simple prefixes and suffixes

Example #1

(Root /k/ /t/ /b/ (= writing
A person who does this for a living kattaab (= a writer)
(Passive participle maktoob (= written
(Present tense yaktubu (= he writes it

Example #2

(Root /g/ /r/ /h/ (= wounding or cutting
A person who does this for a living garraah (= a surgeon)
Passive participle magrooh (= wounded or (a battle casualty
(Present tense yagruhu (= he wounds him

There are over 50 such patterns. While not all forms are found for each root, the three-consonant root is the structural basis of the language

It follows that Arabic speakers have great difficulty in grasping the confusing range of patterns for all words in English; that nouns, verbs, and adjectives follow no regular patterns to distinguish one from another, and may, indeed, have the same orthographic form. Such regularities of morphology as English has, particularly, in the area of affixes, will be readily grasped by Arabic speakers, e.g. -ing, -able, un-, etc

Word Order

In formal written Arabic the verb comes first followed by the subject. This convention is followed more in writing than in speech, and may transpose to English writing

e.g. Decided the minister yesterday to visit the school

Questions and Negatives; Auxiliaries

The auxiliary "do" has no equivalent in Arabic. Where no specific question word is used, a question is marked only by its rising intonation:

e.g. You went to London
You like coffee

Note that the Arabic for "where?" is "

ayn?", which is often confused with "when"

Negatives are formed by putting a particle (laa or ma before the verb:)

e.g. He not play football.

<u>The Verb to Be</u>

There is no verb "to be" in Arabic in the present tense. The copula (am, is, are) is not expressed. It is therefore, commonly omitted in English by Arabic speakers, particularly in present progressive forms

e.g. He teacher.
The boy tall
He going to school

<u>Pronouns</u>

Arabic verb forms incorporate the personal pronouns, subject and object, as prefixes and suffixes. It is common to have them repeated in English as part of the verb:

e.g. John he works there

<u>Articles</u>

There is no indefinite article in Arabic, and the definite article has a range of use different from English. The indefinite article causes particular problems as it is commonly omitted with singular and plural countables:

e.g. This is book or This book (for This is a (book
He was soldier

When the English indefinite article has been learned by the Arabic speaker, it tends to be used wherever the definite article is not used

e.g. There are a books.
I want a rice.

There is a definite article form in Arabic, though it takes the form of a prefix (al-). It is used, as in English, to refer back to indefinite nouns previously mentioned, and also for unique reference (the sun, on the (floor, etc

The most common problem with the definite article arises from interference from the Arabic genitive construction

Most errors of word order and use of articles in genitive constructions are interference of this kind:

e.g. This is the book the teacher.
This is the key door

It follows that Arabic speakers have great difficulties with the Saxon genitive construction

The special cases in which English omits the article, e.g. in bed, at dawn, on Thursday, for breakfast, etc. usually take the definite article in Arabic

e.g. At the sunset we broke our fast.
?What would you like for the breakfast

All days of the week, some months in the Muslim calendar, and many names of towns, cities and countries include the definite article in Arabic, which is often translated, appropriately or not

e.g. We lived in the India.
We had a flat in the Khartoum
On Monday we went to Cardiff

Adjectives and Adverbs

Adjectives follow nouns in Arabic and agree in gender and number. This may cause beginners to make mistakes:

(e.g. He is man tall. (for He is a tall man

Adverbs are used less commonly in Arabic than in English and, except for adverbs of time, do not have a fixed pattern. Adverbs of manner are often expressed in a phrase: quickly is expressed "with speed", and dangerously as "in a dangerous way." There is frequent confusion between the adjective and adverb forms in English, and the adjective form is usually overused

e.g. He drives very dangerous

<u>Prepositions and Particles</u>

Arabic has a wealth of fixed prepositions and particles, with both verbs and adjectives. Many of these do not coincide with their direct English translations
e.g. to arrive to
to be short of
afraid from
angry on
near from
an expert by

Some prepositions have verbal force

· "On" expresses obligation:
e.g. It is on me that I pay him.

To" and "for" express possession
e.g. This book is to me / for me. (for This (book is mine

· "With" expresses present possession
e.g. With me my camera. (for I have my (camera with me

· "For" expresses purpose
e.g. I went home for (I) get my book. (for I (went home to get my book

<u>The Active and Passive Voices</u>

There are active and passive forms for all tenses in Arabic, but they are virtually identical, differing only in the (unwritten) short vowelling. A passive verb in a text is therefore only recognizable as such from its context. The passive voice is used far less frequently in Arabic writing than in English, and hardly at all in everyday speech. Thus while the concepts of active and passive will readily be understood, the uses and forms of the passive cause problems.

Vocabulary

The acquisition of vocabulary is particularly difficult for Arab learners of English. Only a minimal number of words in English are borrowed from Arabic. A small range of mainly technical words, such as computer, radar, helicopter, and television, have been taken into Arabic, but these are common to most languages. Arabic speakers have very few aids to reading and listening comprehension by virtue of their first language, and they should not be expected to acquire English at anything like the same pace as European learners

Writing System (Orthography and (Punctuation

Arabic orthography is a cursive system, running from right to left. Only consonants and long vowels are written. There is no upper and lower case distinction, nor can the isolated forms of letters normally be juxtaposed to form words

Arabic speakers must, hence, learn an entirely new alphabet for English, including a capital letter system; and then master its rather unconventional spelling patterns. All aspects of writing in English cause major problems for Arabic speakers, and they should not be expected to cope with reading or writing at the same level or pace as European students who are at a similar level of proficiency in oral English

Punctuation

Arabic punctuation is now similar to western style punctuation, though some of the symbols are inverted or reversed, e.g. a reversed question mark and comma. The use of full stops and commas is much freer than in English, and it is common to begin each new sentence with And or So. Connected writing in English tends therefore to contain long, loose sentences, linked by commas and "ands."

NOTE: The markings on top and underneath the writing sample provided should not be confused with punctuation. They are, in fact, the short vowels

UNIT 3

Error Analysis

This unit focuses on the following topics:

- ❖ THE CONCEPT OF ERROR ANALYSIS (EA):
- ❖ THE DIFFERENT STAGES OF ERROR ANALYSIS:
- ❖ LIMITATIONS/DRAW BACKS OF ERROR ANALYSIS:
- ❖ ERRORS AND MISTAKES
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❖ **THE CONCEPT OF ERROR ANALYSIS (EA):**

Because of the shortcomings of the **Contrastive Analysis** to clarifying foreign language/second-language errors, researchers began to look for another approach which was both theoretical and practical; this approach or techniques is called **Error Analysis.** It was first used in the 1970s by S.P. Corder and his colleagues as an alternative to Contrastive Analysis, an approach influenced by behaviorism through which applied linguists sought to use the formal distinctions between the learners' first and second language to predict errors.

In order to understand the process of L2 learning, the mistakes a person make in the process of constructing a new system of language should be analyzed carefully. Here we can give the definition of EA as. "a technique used in the field of Contrastive Linguistics that aims at describing and explaining the systematic nature of the errors generated in the learner's language. (The main purpose of Error Analysis is to identify, describe and analyze errors).

❖ **PROCEDURES /STEPS FOR CARRYING OUT ERROR ANALYSIS:**

According to Cored (1974) Conducting Error Analysis includes the following steps: 1. Collection of a sample of learner language, 2. Identification of errors, 3. Description of errors, 4. Explanation of errors, 5. Evaluation of errors However,

many studies do not include Step 5. It is seen as separate issue with its own methods of enquiry

1. **Collection of a sample of learner language.**
   The learner's language and production factors can influence the sample collected.
   a) They can control them by narrowly specifying the sample they intend to collect.
   b) Collecting a broader sample reflecting different learners, different types of language and different production conditions.

2. **Identification of errors:**
   A comparison between what the learner has produced and what a native speaker counterpart would produce in the same context.
   a) Prepare a reconstruction of the sample as this would have been produced by the learner's native speaker counterpart.
   b) Assume that every utterance/sentence produced by the learner is erroneous and systematically eliminate those that an initial comparison with the native speaker sample shows to be well-formed
   c) Identify which part(s) of each learner utterance/sentence differ from the reconstructed version Key procedure.

3. **Description of errors**
   Description is a comparative process between erroneous utterances of the learner and native forms of the language. The comparison between the two shows the deviations on phonological, morphological and the syntactic levels of the target language structure where the learners have committed errors.

4. **Explanation of errors :**
   The most important stage in an EA is determining the source of errors in order to account for why they were made. Concern here will be with psycholinguistic sources of error ,why learners make errors? - The difficulty they experience in accessing their L2 knowledge - If L2 forms have not been yet automatized & L1 require control processing resort to use of non-standard forms (acquired earlier)

5. **Error Evaluation EE** is not so much a stage in the analysis of learner errors as supplementary procedure for applying the result of an EA involves determining the gravity of different errors with a view to deciding which ones should receive instruction
❖ LIMITATIONS/DRAW BACKS OF ERROR ANALYSIS:

Dr. M. Maniruzzaman points out four major limitations of Error analysis. They are given bellow

1. Cordr's distinction between errors of competence and errors of performance is by no mean clear-cut as for example*: **He induced me to John (intended:introduced.** In this case, the verb form used is found to be an error of performance because of syllabic deletion or an error of competence because of phonetic similarity.

2. It is very difficult to make a distinction between interlingual and intralingual deviations from SL/FL norm, because it remains unclear which operating principle SL/F.

3. Error analysis hardly goes by any insights into the course of the second language learning process. For example, error analysis is restricted by definition to what the learner cannot do.

4. After the second stage of Error Analysis procedure the attention is usually entirely focused on what the learner cannot do but no attention is paid to what the learner can do.

❖ **ERROR & MISTAKE**

The concepts of "error" and "mistake" had been used interchangeably to refer to the same thing. However, Corder (1974) pointed out it was important to distinguish between these two terms in the field of Contrastive Linguistics:

The concept of "mistake"

Mistakes are inaccuracies in linguistic production either in our native language (L1) or in the foreign language (L2) that are caused by memory lapses, physical states and conditions such as fatigue, inattention, or strong emotion. Mistakes are mainly slips of the tongue or lapses, even native people make mistakes in speech and writing. Mistakes are not systematic, they occur accidentally, the learner is immediately aware of them and can correct them.

Slips and attempts:

Edge (1989) distinguishes between slips and attempts from the point of view of learners and teachers, defining slips as mistakes that the teacher thinks the student could self-correct. When the students want to express their meaning but they make a mistake because they have not yet learned the necessary language structure, their mistakes can be called attempts.

Performance and competence

Mistakes are miscues in performance. The term 'performance' was introduced by Chomsky (1965) and he meant the overt production of language as either speech or writing. He contrasted it with 'competence', the native speaker's perfect knowledge. Competence is the knowledge of what is grammatically correct; performance is what occurs in practice. Chomsky regarded performance as the faulty representation of competence caused by psychological restrictions. Mistakes reveal nothing about the underlying competence.

The concept of "error":

Errors are systematic and may give valuable insight into language acquisition because they are goofs in the learner's underlying competence. (Scovel 2001) When native speakers make mistakes, they can identify and correct them immediately because they have almost full knowledge of the linguistic structure of their mother tongue. Non-native speakers, L2 learners not only make mistakes,

they also commit errors and as they have only an incomplete knowledge of the target language, they are not always able to correct the errors that they make. Thus the learners' errors reflect a lack of underlying competence in the language that they are learning.

The following table summarizes the basic differences between errors and mistakes:

Point of View	Errors	Mistakes
Source	Competence	Performance
Characteristics	Systematic	Unsystematic
Linguistic system	Not mastered yet	Mastered
Correction	Can't be self corrected by the leaner.	learners themselves can correct their mistakes

Ways to distinguish between errors and mistakes

To distinguish between an error and a mistake, Ellis (1997) suggests two ways:

1. *to check the consistency of learner's performance*. If he sometimes uses the correct form and sometimes the wrong one, it is a mistake. However, if he always uses it incorrectly, it is then an error.

2. *to ask learner to try to correct his own deviant utterance.* Where he is unable to, the deviations are errors; where he is successful, they are mistakes.

After discussing the basic differences between mistakes and errors we have to deal with the issue of why learners make errors and why they find it so difficult to correct their errors. Researchers dealing with second language acquisition (Corder, 1974, Odlin,1989, Scovel, 2001) agree that one of the major causes of errors is language transfer.

❖ **THE CAUSES OF ERRORS AND MISTAKES**

It is important to identify the causes of errors and mistakes, because this knowledge may help the teacher to decide how to respond. Errors of interference and overgeneralization provide a key to learners current' understanding of the language system and may provide the teacher with evidence on which to base decisions about what to teach explicitly.

Errors have been classified by J. Richard et al (2002) into two categories. The **Interlingual Error** and the **Intralingual Error**, those two elements refer respectively to the negative influence of both the speaker's native language, and the target language itself.

Interlingual error is caused by the interference of the native language L1 (also known as interference, linguistic interference, and cross-linguistic influence), whereby the learner tends to use their linguistic knowledge of L1 on some Linguistic features in the target language, however, it often leads to making errors. The example, provided by J. Richard et al (2002) '' the incorrect French sentence Elle regarde les ("She sees them"), produced according to the word order of English, instead of the correct French sentence Elle les regarde (Literally, "She them sees"). (P. 267) shows the type of errors aroused by the negative effect of the native language interference.

Intralingual error is an error that takes place due to a particular misuse of a particular rule of the target language, it is, in fact, quite the opposite of Interlingual error, it puts the target language into focus, the target language in this perspective is thought of as an error cause. Furthermore, J. Richard, et al. (2002) consider it as one which results from ''faulty or partial'' learning of the target language. **thus the intralingual errors are classified as follows:**

Overgeneration errors: in Linguistic, overgeneralization errors occur when the learner applies a grammatical rule in cases where it doesn't apply. Richard et al, (2002) mentioned that they are caused ''by extension of target language rules to inappropriate context.'' (P.185). this kind of errors has been committed while dealing with regular and irregular verbs, as well as the application of plural forms. E.g. (Tooth == Tooths rather than teeth) and (he goes == he goed rather than went).

Simplifications: they are resulting from learners producing simpler linguistic forms than those found in the target language, in other words, learners attempt to be linguistically creative and produce their own poetic sentences/utterances, they may actually be successful in doing it, but it is not necessary the case, Corder (as cited in Mahmoud 2014:276) mentioned that learners do not have the complex system which they could simplify. This kind of errors is committed through both of omission and addition of some linguistic elements at the level of either the spelling or grammar

Developmental Errors: this kind of errors is part of the Overgeneralizations, (this later is subtitled into Natural and developmental learning stage errors), D.E are results of normal pattern of development, such as (come = comed) and (break = breaked), D.E indicates that the learner has started developing their linguistic knowledge and fail to reproduce the rules they have lately been exposed to in target language learning.

Teacher Induced errors: as known as Transfer of Training, errors caused by misleading teaching examples, teachers, sometimes, unconditionally, explain a rule without highlighting the exceptions or the intended message they would want to convey. J. Richard et al. (2002) provided an example that occurs at the level of teaching prepositions and particularly '' at '' where the

teacher may hold up a box and say '' *I am looking at the box '',* the students may understand that '' *at* '' means *'' under '',* they may later utter '' the cat is at the table '' instead of the cat is under the table.

Errors of avoidance: these errors occur when the learner fail to apply certain target language rules just because they are thought of to be too difficult.

Errors of overproduction: in the early stages of language learning, learners are supposed to have not yet acquired and accumulated a satisfied linguistic knowledge which can enable them to use the finite rules of the target language in order to produce infinite structures, most of the time, beginners overproduce, in such a way, they frequently repeat a particular structure.

❖ **CLASSIFICATIONS OF LEARNER'S ERRORS:**

Learner's linguistic errors are classified differently by different linguists. However the mst common classifications for errors cab be listed as follows:

Classification 1 : Based on the linguistic level or the specific area of the language in which they occur, errors can be classified into:

1) Phonological errors, These are the errors related to pronunciation, e.g. in a word like 'river' the last 'r' should not be pronounced fully. If this is done, it's a phonological error.

2) Morphological errors are the type of errors related to word formation and word structure in the language such as the omission of a plural morphine.

3) Syntactical errors: These are errors due to problem with the grammatical structure of language. It is related to the sentence structure e.g. *'I prefer tea than coffee'.* Here, underlined part is incorrect. There should be 'to' instead. So there is a grammatical error.

4) Lexical errors, or semantic errors are the errors related to the wrong selection of words or using words incorrect meaning.

5) Orthographic errors are usually used to describe the type of errors related to writing system of language such as spelling errors and punctuation errors.

Classification 2 : Based on surface structure/ process, learner's errors can be classified into: **omission errors, addition errors, substitution errors, and misordering errors.**

1. Omission errors:

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of items that must appear in well-formed utterance.

Examples:
   a. Susan is good student.
   b. Jack is best student in his class.

In utterance **a** the student omits an indefinite article *a* for *Susan is a good student*, while in utterance **b** a definite article *the* is omitted for *Jack is the best student in his class*.

Some other examples of omissive errors are shown in the following sentences:
   - My father is doctor
   - I am learn English well.
   - I bought three new book yesterday.
   - what you want to do now?

2. Addition errors

Addition errors are the opposite of omission errors. They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not be present in a well-formed utterance.

Examples of addition errors:
   - I am is a student.
   - You can to swim in the swimming pool anytime.
   - The girl does not dresses up appropriately.
   - Good writing is depends on several factors.

3. Misordering errors:

The incorrect sequence of words or phrases in a sentence or incorrect placement of morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance characterizes misordering error. Misordering errors occur systematically for both L1 and L2 learners.

Examples:
   a. Do you know who is she?
   b. What you are thinking about?
   c. I showed her where is the library.

4. Substitution errors:
   Substitution error is the automatic replacement of one item in a sentence, strategy, word, or phoneme when the specific information is forgotten or unknown.
   Examples:
         a. I lost my road.(way)
         b. I am not afraid from dogs.(of)
         c. His bigger brother is a teacher.(elder)

Classification 3: Based on **the degree to which they interfere** with the communication, errors are classified into:

1) **Global error** - usually defined as an error in the use of a major element of sentence structure, which makes a sentence or utterance *difficult or impossible to understand*

2) **Local error-** an error in the use of an element of sentence structure, but which does not *cause problems of comprehension.*

Classification 4 : based on how apparent they are, errors can be described as:

1. Overt errors: are obvious even out of context.
   - Easy to identify. e.g. *car there is. / *she a good girl.
   - A clear deviation in form. If you read the sentence, you will realize that there is something wrong.

 2. **Covert errors**: are evident only in context.
   - Occur in utterances that are superficially well-formed, but do not mean what the learner intended them to mean, i.e. they are grammatical, but not a representation of the context being expressed.

   - E.g. we taught this at school. (Without a context, we cannot say that this wrong.) e.g. (Ahmed) she has been waiting for a big present.

- They are <u>grammatically</u> correct, but the intention we perceive is not what the intention is really.

❖ **TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ERRORS**

Teachers are often afraid of their students' making errors. They feel that students might learn their mistakes and so they must make sure that everything they say is correct. This attitude goes back to the earlier belief, influenced by the behaviorist model of learning, which maintains that the language can be learnt by repeating correct forms until they become automatic, that is why repeating incorrect forms is harmful. It is now widely agreed that language is not learnt this way: it is a system of rules that the learner has to acquire, that trying out language and making errors are natural and unavoidable parts of this process. Doff (1993) explains that learners are applying rules from their own first languages and they are applying rules which they have internalized but they are in some way intermediate between their native languages(L1) and the target language (L2).

❖ **FEEDBACK AND ERROR CORRECTION**

During a course students' performance is regularly assessed by grades on papers, quizzes, and exams until they receive the final grade.This information does not always come in time for the students to improve their learning while they are attending a course. That is why students need to be given feedback during the course, as well.

▪ **Feedback**

Feedback refers to the information that learners receive from their teacher about their performance, which will help them take self-corrective action and improve their achievement. Learners receive feedback from several sources: themselves, the learning task, fellow students and the teacher. The purpose of giving feedback in the classroom is to improve learner performance, it provides constructive advice, and guidance to learners in their effort to raise their performance levels. Feedback is generally given for **informational** and/or **motivational purposes**. Informational feedback corrects errors that the learner commits, but it should not be demotivating.

Feedback can also be used as a device to reinforce learning. Effective feedback focuses on the learner's performance and stresses both strengths and suggestions for improvement.

- **Correction of learner's errors**

Correction is a form of feedback given to learners on their use of the language. All teachers would agree that correcting the errors that the students make when they speak or write is one of the most difficult tasks in language teaching. There are so many issues the teacher has to consider: whether it is an error or a mistake, at what stages the teacher should correct, how much correction should be made and how the student can be corrected without being de-motivated.

- **Indication of incorrectness**

Harmer (1991) suggests several techniques:
  1. **Repeating**
     The teacher asks the student repeat what she/he has just said, by using the word 'again' with questioning intonation to indicate that something is wrong.
  2. **Echoing**
     The teacher repeats what the student has just said using a questioning intonation, or repeats the sentence up to the error/mistake and ass someone to continue. Gower and Walters (1983) warn us to be very careful not to echo the errors in a mocking way because it might discourage the student.
  3. **Denial**
     The teacher simply can say that the answer is not right and ask the student to repeat it. It may be more discouraging than the earlier techniques.

  4. **Questioning**
     The teacher can ask the whole class 'Is that correct?' The advantage of this technique is that it focuses the attention of the whole class on the problem, but it might cause the student who made the error or mistake to feel more embarrassed.
  5. **Expression**
     The teacher can show that the response was incorrect by a facial expression or with some gesture, but it must be done carefully so that the student will not think that the teacher's expression is mockery.

- **Ways of error correction**

There are several ways of correction that can be employed in the classroom.
  1. **Self-correction**

After the student recognizes what is incorrect in his/her response, s/he should be able to correct him/herself. Self-correction is the best technique, because the student will remember it better.

2. **Peer correction**

If the student cannot correct him/herself the teacher can encourage other students to supply correction. This technique is to be applied tactfully, so that the student who originally made the mistake will not feel humiliated. In the case of errors, it is useful if after peer correction the teacher goes back to the student who made the error and gets him/her to say it correctly. Edge (1990) mentions the following advantages of peer correction:

- it encourages cooperation, students get used to the idea that they can learn from each other
- both learners (who made the error and who corrects) are involved in listening to and thinking about the language
- the teacher gets a lot of important information about the learners' ability
- if students learn to practice peer correction without hurting each other's feelings, they will do the same in pair-work activities.

However, it may happen that whenever the teacher asks for peer correction from the whole class, it is always the same students who answer. In this case the teacher has to make sure that other students are involved as well.

3. **Teacher correction**

If no one can correct, the teacher must realize that the point has not yet been learnt properly. In that case the teacher can re-explain the problematic item of language, especially if the teacher sees that the majority of the class has the same problem. There might be more repetition and practice necessary. We must not forget that the main aim of correction is to facilitate the students to learn the new language item correctly. That is why it is important that after correction the teacher has to ask the student who originally made the error or mistake to give the correct response.

❖ **EXAMPLES FOR ERROR ANALYSIS:**

Basic types of Errors	Levels of Language	Orthographic	Phonological	Grammatical	Lexical
Omission		Realy Creat studing	Question /ts/ stander	She a good girl.	He is an honourable. Red brown/reddish brown.
Addition		Untill Get ride Pron(o)unciation	Knife Calm climb know elephant	Informations Homeworks He is comes.	The food I ate it is delicious She is blonde girl.
Substitution (selection)		Grammer Massage Describtion Advice	/p/, /b/ /z/,/th/ /s/,/th/ Problem Church /ʃ3:rʃ/ Of /of/ Plural /prular/ /pIlentI/	He is more reader He have a problem He is oldest than his brother. Taught/teached He have a car.	Happy chance Buy our head Pretty man. I lost my road. He still/stay at home. Teach/learn
Misordering		Receive Theif Prular Plenty	Plural /prular/	He also can speak English. I to the shop went. Adverbs.	-Mixing adjectives order. (big car red) . -Key car/car key. -Man ice. -phone mobile. -tall river.

How would you analyze the errors in the following sentences based on the categories of errors classification you have learnt ?

"Her forhead is full of wrinkls because of her sorrowful."

	Basic type	Level of Language	Degree	Appearance	Source
forhead (forehead)	Omission	Orthographical	Local	Overt	Intralingual; ignorance
is full of (has)	Substitution	Lexical	Global	Overt	Interlingual; translation
wrinkls (wrinkles)	Omission	Orthographical	Local	Overt	Intralingual; ignorance
sorrowful (sorrow)	Addition	Lexical	Local	Overt	Intralingual; incomplete

"She is clamer and stranger women I meat in my life."

	Basic type	Level of Language	Degree	Appearance	Source
(the)	Omission	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Intralingual; ignorance
clamer (calmer)	Substitution	Orthographical	Global	Overt	Intralingual; carelessness
calmer (calmest)	Substitution	Lexical	Global	Overt	Interlingual; transform
stranger (strangest)	Substitution	Grammatical	Global	Overt	Intralingual; ignorance
women (woman)	Substitution	Lexical	Local	Overt	Intralingual; ignorance
meat (met)	Addition	Orthographical	Local	Overt	Intralingual
meat (have ever met)	Omission	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Interlingual; translation

The word bloody and damn in * English language is taboo becouse they has a religious connotations in the past.

	Basic type	Level of Language	Degree	Appearance	Source
word	Omission	Grammatical	Local	Overt	
the	Omission	Grammatical	Local	Overt	
becouse	Substitution	Orthographical	Local	Overt	
has	Addition	Grammatical	Local	Overt	
a	Addition	Grammatical	Local	Overt	

For examples, when doctor tackls to his student he says "hi" his student replays his doctor.

	Basic type	Level of Language	Degree	Appearance	Source
examples	Addition	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Interlingual; Over-generalization
doctor	Substitution	Lexical	Global	Overt/covert	Interlingual; translation
tackls	Substitution	Lexical	Global	Overt/covert	Interlingual; translation
replay	Substitution	Orthographic	Global	Overt	Intralingual

His father is one of the most good person* in his society.

	Basic type	Level of Language	Degree	Appearance	Source
most good	Substitution	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Intralingual; Over-generalization / Ignorance / Incomplete
his	Addition	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Interlingual; translation

The <u>Egyptions</u> <u>consider</u> <u>a one</u> of leaders <u>whowill</u> not be <u>compared</u> in our <u>hestory</u>.

      Egyptians consider him one of the leaders who will not be matched in our history.

	Basic type	Level of Language	Degree	Appearance	Source
The	Addition	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Interlingual; ignorance of the rule
Egyptions	Selection	Lexical	Local	Overt	Intralingual; ignorance / overgeneralization
consider	Substitution	Spelling	Local	Overt	Intralingual
a one	Addition	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Intralingual; overgeneralization
willnot	Omission	Orthographic	Local	Overt	Intralingual
compared (forgotten / remembered / match)	Selection	Lexical	Global	Overt	Interlingual; translation

In his **age**, most **of** **forein** **counter** that has greed to get Egypt **worth**, were unable to trying, to do so.

- During his reign, most foreign countries that agreed to get Egypt worse were unable to do so.

	Basic type	Level of Language	Degree	Appearance	Source
In (During)	Substitution	Lexical	Local	Overt	Interlingual; translation
age (reign / time / era)	Substitution	Lexical	Global	Overt	Interlingual; translation
of	Addition	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Intralingual
forein	Omission	Spelling	Local	Overt	Intralingual
has (had)	Substitution	Grammatical	Local	Overt	Intralingual
greed (intention)	Substitution	Lexical	Local	Overt	Intralingual
gree (agreed)	omission	Spelling	Global	Overt	Intralingual
worth (worse)	Substitution	Spelling	Global	Overt	Intralingual